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ABSTRACT

This paper unites theory and practice in examining the concept of "theory in practice." It contends that good administrators are theoretical about their work and that they construct categories using common, essential characteristics across similar situations so that few situations are viewed as unique. Two school superintendents were interviewed for the study. They were asked such questions as "What kinds of information do you use in confirming, revising, and rejecting theories?" and "Do you revise or reject theories that no longer 'work'?" The actions of the two participants were analyzed as theoretical (generalizable across their workplace contexts). The superintendents used data to verify and, if necessary, adjust their theories, rejected some theories antithetical to their own values/beliefs, connected decision-making to theory, and created a web of complementary categories for addressing different situations. Their theories of practice encompassed an eclectic use of social science theory to help them organize their administrative experiences. Their theories of practice were context-specific and not designed for generalizability. Future and current administrators should learn to organize their experience inductively into complementary configurations of theoretical categories in shuttling between inductively derived generalizations about their practice and the particulars of a situation. (Contains 63 references.) (RJM)

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RUNNING HEAD: Superintendent Theories in Practice

Construction and Verification of School Administrator Theories in Practice

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EA 030 161

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Abstract

The authors attempt to re-couple theory and practice in resurrecting the concept "theory in practice". Such a personal theory functions as a web of complementary categories each of which specifies for similar situations the actions yielding intended consequences. Categories are grounded through: (a) predominantly moral assumptions about people, schooling, work, democracy, etc.; and (b) if-then propositions (if x decision has worked in similar situations, it should work again). Categories are verified both through valuation (i.e., valuing the desired consequences) and empirical, consequence analysis. The actions of the two superintendents participating in this study are analyzed as theoretical, that is, generalizable across their workplace contexts. These superintendents: (a) used data to verify and, if necessary, to adjust their theories; (b) rejected some theories antithetical to their own values/beliefs; (c) connected decisionmaking to theory; and (d) demonstrated some initial evidence in "webbing" their various theories into complementary categories. The cognitive apprenticeship then is discussed as a potentially effective instructional strategy for leadership candidate construction of theories of practice.

Construction and Verification of School Administrator Theories in Practice

> [Dewey confronts the artificial dualism between knowledge and action:] ... action is involved in knowledge--not in the sense ... that knowledge is subordinated to action and inferior to "practice," but in the sense that knowledge is a form of action, and that action is one of the terms by which knowledge is acquired and used. (Dewey, 1938, p. 260)

This artificial dualism between knowledge and action today is played out in the institutional decoupling of theory from practice: two ships passing in the night in the field of education administration (EA). Theory, that is, interrelated concepts, assumptions, and generalizations systematically describing, explaining, and predicting organization behaviors (Hoy & Miskel, 1991), has helped EA professors legitimate their tenuous existence to ever-critical Arts and Sciences professors. The work of practitioners, conversely, is unpredictable, short (of two or three-minute duration), and consists of verbal exchanges (Peterson, 1978). A principal, trapped among an angry parent, resentful teacher, and manipulative student, must render an on-the-spot decision to this hostile audience. Practitioners, perhaps too skeptically, view their practice as: a) endless strings of unconnected situations requiring action; and b) context-specific and therefore incapable of generalizability either within or across workplaces.

This theory-practice schism is particularly lamentable because, of course, EA is a professional, "applied" field, not an

academic discipline (Willower, 1973). Professors, historically, have presented theory (e.g., Mintzberg's socio-political theory). Leadership candidates then "apply" theory to practice during their internships. To many, such an expectation is suspect.[1]

Such a separation between theory and practice also is ironic. All theory, ultimately, is based on researchable practice. Theory and practice exist in a dialectical relationship:

> What we do must affect how we think. ... practice--all practice--derives from some kind of theory about how the world operates. Thus, we use theory to mean a way of seeing .... When we refer to practice, we mean the activities and actions of our theoretician, what he does to give form to ideas. The relationship is ongoing and dependent, in the sense that one presupposes and demands the other. (Foster, 1986, p. 12)

Willower (1973, p. 17) provides this observation about the inseparable quality between theory and practice: " ... practitioners as well as researchers should be theorizers. Those who work with theory learn to justify ideas by publicly exposing their logic, an exercise not commonly required of practitioners."

In this paper we seek to re-couple theory and practice in resurrecting the concept of "theory in practice" (Agyris & Schon, 1974). Good administrators, we contend, are theoretic about their work. First, these administrators construct categories by common essential characteristics across similar situations so that few, if any, situations are viewed as unique (Argyris & Schon). Second, they verify their decisions by examining the consequences of

decisions (Willower, 1992). Did the decision "work," that is, result in the intended consequence (Licata, 1978)? Specifically, we: (a) provide a theoretical framework for theory in practice; (b) analyze the theory-building efforts of two superintendents; and (c) assess the potential for the cognitive apprenticeship in helping leadership candidates construct theories in practice.

Theoretical Framework

Our framework is based largely on the work of Aygyris & Schon's (1974). We modify their framework, however, by incorporating the work of other theorists: How administrators theorize about their practice appears closely related to the concepts of expertise, problem solving, and consequence analysis. We also contend that public schooling is essentially a moral endeavor (Sergiovanni, 1992a; Starratt, 1991); therefore, we incorporate a normative framework into theorizing about practice.

Theories in Practice

All theories explain phenomena and predict actions. Whereas social science theory assumes value-neutral data in generalizing across pre-specified units of analysis (e.g., leaders, types of organizations), a personal theory generalizes only within a practitioner's workplace context. Yet no practitioner can have a universal theory of practice--one that embraces all phenomena encountered in a workplace. A theory in practice, instead, consists of a web of several "theories of action" (Argyris & Schon, 1974). The practitioner adjusts, adds, and rejects theories of action in accommodating an endless string of situations requiring explanation, analysis, and, ultimately, decisions.

"Have I seen this situation before?" the shrewd practitioner reflects? She then detaches the essential circumstances of that situation and scans through her current web of theories of action. That is, she compares the particularities of a situation through the lenses of several theories before choosing one with the best likelihood of achieving the intended outcome (Schwab, 1964). If she discovers, with some consistency, that actions taken on several situations yield unintended consequences, she then constructs another theory of action embracing those situations in the never-ending battle of yoking general, universal knowledge with particularities of situations. Theories are about "kinds of phenomena rather than unique, individual phenomena" (Argyris & Schon, p. 197).

Argyris and Schon (p. 6) sum up a theory of practice as a set of interrelated theories of action that specify for situations the actions yielding, under relevant assumptions, intended consequences. Such a theory is predictive (i.e., propositional): If decision x has "worked" in several similar situations, chances are good that it will work in still another similar situation.

The Constructs of Expertise and Problem Solving

Ohde and Murphy's (in press) review on expert use-of-knowledge research provides additional insight into how theories in practice are constructed. Experts, in general, possess knowledge differing from that of novices. Experts amass a larger, well-organized knowledge base (Ohde & Murphy, citing Berliner, 1986) that enables them to classify problems according to principles, laws, and rules rather than the surface features (Ohde

& Murphy, citing Chi, Glaser, & Rees, 1983). This knowledge, according to Frederiksen (1984, cited by Ohde & Murphy), is highly organized and allows experts to identify patterns and configurations, a process reducing cognitive load. Experts, consequently, "Seldom have to deal with novelty, having brought much of his [sic] work-world into the realm of the familiar" (Ohde & Murphy, citing Feltovich & Patel, 1984, p. 3). In organizing their knowledge inductively, experts use schema: abstract knowledge structures summarizing information about many particular cases and the relationships among them (Ohde & Murphy, citing Anderson, 1982).

Owen and Sweller (1989, cited by Ohde & Murphy) relate the concept of schema to that of problem solving. Schema, to these researchers, are cognitive structures specifying the category to which a problem belongs and the most appropriate strategies for solving that category of problems. Leithwood and Stager (1989) expanded on the relationship between cognitively-derived schema and problem solving in school administration. In comparing expert with non-expert principal, particularly in dealing with unstructured (as opposed to structured) problems, they found:

1) Expert principals recognized various problems from past experience and, therefore, solutions were familiar.

2) Expert problem solvers tended to be very explicit about their assumptions regarding the hypothetical nature of problems presented to them.

3) Regarding goal-setting thinking, experts were better able to see the implications for problems not directly concerned with students and programs.

4) Experts applied more principles (long-term goals grounded in fundamental laws, doctrines, assumptions). For example, regarding his entry as a principal, one expert suggested: "If the kids are turned off, they will start to look for things to criticize." Using this abstraction, the principle decided what should get his attention; the abstraction, therefore, provided a structure for problem solving.

5) Experts spent more time framing the problem, collecting information about the problem, and planning for its solution.

So experts are adept at storing and organizing their practical knowledge into problem-solving schema resembling the theories of action of Aygyris and Schon. Whereas cognitive psychologists use terms like "abstract principles of particular domains" (Frensch & Sternberg, cited by Ohde & Murphy, p. 21), Aygyris and Schon use underlying assumptions and propositions undergirding their theories of action.

What is lacking in both theories in practice[2] and expertise and problem-solving. however, is the moral element: That schooling can improve life chances for students and maximize our citizenry's democratic participation. We now turn to the normative dimension of theories in practice.

Normative Frameworks

Such frameworks are based on administrators promoting the needs of students, their moral charges, and, therefore, comprise

the highest standards of the profession (Beck & Murphy, 1994; Starratt, 1991). The values/beliefs implicit in these frameworks function as standards of reference in making judgments about whether a current state is satisfactory (Greenfield, 1987). Three components comprise normative frameworks a) personal values, b) beliefs about professional practice and schooling, and c) internalized commitments (Keedy, Seeley, & Bitting, in press).

Personal Values. As pointed out by Katz and Kahn (1966), values and beliefs in general provide elaborate and generalized justification for appropriate behavior and for activities and functions of an organization. Specific to normative frameworks in school leadership, however, values emphasize highly desirable personal attributes, since schools are responsible, civic institutions (Noblit, Rogers, & McCadden, 1995). Such values consist of: (a) deeply embedded personal attributes (honesty, integrity, caring, responsibility, perseverance, initiative); (b) desires (student academic and career success, respect from colleagues and teachers); and (c) political and social policy orientation (equity, democracy, competition, professionalism).

Beliefs. Beliefs within normative frameworks include tenets and conceptualizations about redefining schools as equitable, caring, and student-centered institutions. Examples include: (a) education and schooling (need for higher academic standards, the concept of "success for all," homogeneous or heterogeneous grouping or tracking, students as meaning makers); (b) management and leadership (Deming's theories about quality control, democratic vs. authoritarian management, bureaucratic vs.

partnership approaches); and (c) human motivation (negative vs. positive reinforcement, Maslow's hierarchy of values, Kolberg's moral reasoning, teamwork, and shared, institutional mission).

Commitments. Commitments occur when principals hold values and beliefs so strongly that they become predisposed to taking certain actions as the right things to do in improving the life chances of students. Commitments function as internalized values and beliefs. Examples may be decisions to: (a) long range vision (e.g., school restructuring, personal career plans), and (b) short range plans (e.g., rescheduling use of the lunch room). Commitments often are based on applied research: class size (Finn & Achilles, 1990), cooperative learning (Slavin, 1987), outcomes-based learning (Spady, 1988), and principals' instructional leadership (Heck, 1992). Applied research may act as "triggers" in convincing principals with particular values/beliefs to taking corresponding actions.

Normative frameworks provide moral substance to the categories (or schema) described above. Principals using well-formed normative frameworks lead out from ideas and therefore are not dependent on mandates from central office administrators.[3] As Foster (1986, p. 15) observes, leadership lies not in the position given, but in the position taken, and what administrators choose to do (original emphasis).

Verification and Consequence Analysis

Personal theories of practice, like all theories, should be verifiable (Willower, 1992). Without verification, claimed theories are mere speculation. Argyris and Schon (1974) claim that

a theory of action is testable if one can specify the situation, the desired result, and the action through which the result is to be achieved: "Testing consists of evaluating whether the action yields the predicted results" (p. 25). There may be at least two verification domains: the normative and empirical.

An administrator makes x decision because she believes in the pre-verified likelihood that that decision will result in a desired (i.e., a normative) consequence. Such a desired consequence is compatible with the administrator's value/belief system. Values are both objective and subjective. The objective side relates to external embodiment: We value friendship, saving a life, teaching a child as ends in themselves independent of the knower. The internal, subjective, dimension is the product both of judgment and valuing: The administrator "internalizes" the value of a decision by being forced to decide among competing standards of goodness (Dewey, 1908/1960), and then judging its worthiness according to valuing the consequences of that decision (personal communication with Paul F. Biting, October 9, 1995).

When Principal Jones, for example, decides to maintain the integrity of her academic program because she values its positive effects on the school's students rather than maintain loyalty to her central office superiors, she then sees more clearly what she stands for and what she is likely to achieve. She can hardly know what she wants without knowing the consequences of maintaining integrity rather than loyalty (Keedy, Seeley, & Bitting, in press).

The second domain is empirical: assessing decisions as to their consequences using factual and quantitative analyses. Licata (1978) developed a consequence-analysis model consisting of three types of problems solved by administrators. Type I is characterized by problem indicators perceived as unsubstantiated. The task is to determine the validity of factors surrounding the problem (e.g., Can the claim be made that football at the junior high level affects normal bone growth?). In Type II, problem indicators have been substantiated or accepted as valid. School community members, for instance, circulate a petition protesting a poem read in class by Ms. Wilson; the principal has the petition in hand, and therefore knows there is a problem. In Type III, evaluation data are available that confirm or negate a particular problem. For instance, reading scores are low in a rural elementary school. Although individualized reading machines are being used to solve the problem, reading achievement has not improved. The principal should chose an alternative action, because he knows that the current solution (use of readings machines) is not working. Licata also stressed the importance of assessing possible negative consequences. In the Type III problem above, for instance, the principal might consider implementing a new reading program, but are the teachers trained properly for such a program? Might the scores fall even lower?

So a well-honed theory of practice partly results in good judgment exercised by an administrator: He has a high batting average in the percentage of instances in which decisions result in desired or predicted consequences. He "knows" his batting

average because he constantly assesses the consequences of this situation: professionally and politically. In brief, the practitioner examines the consequences of decisions--either through empirical analysis (e.g., student test scores), or valuation (Do I value the consequence enough to make the same decision in a similar situation?). Did she link up a situation with an appropriate theory, or did she misread the particularities and apply the wrong theory? Equally important, when might a theory no longer "work"? Are the assumptions underlying a theory no longer valid?

Visual Representations of Theories of Practice

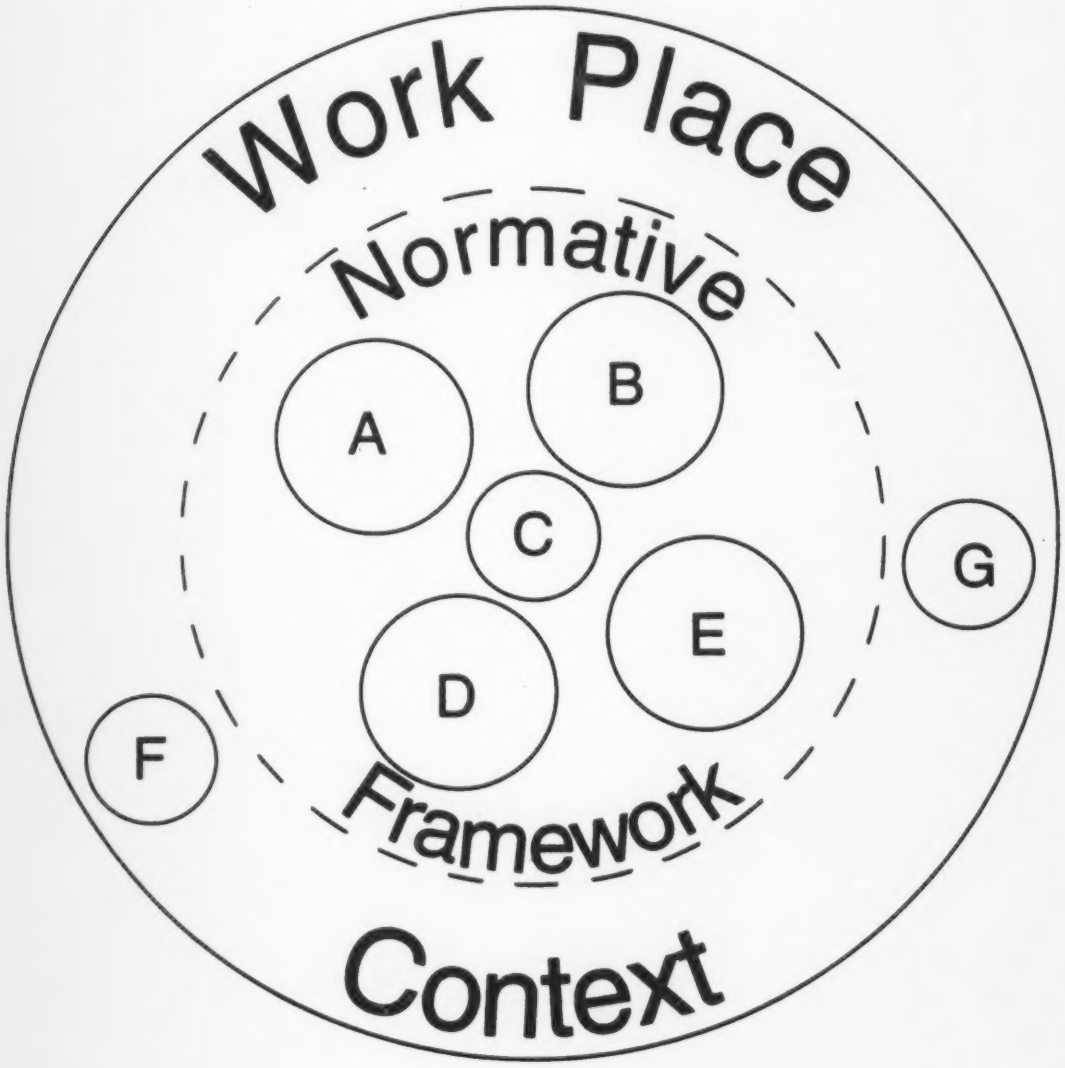
On Figure 1 the large circle represents the entire workplace context of the administrator, since theories in practice are concerned only with generalizations within a practitioner's workplace. We use the term "categories" (their number in this figure is arbitrary), as opposed to schema or theories in action, to denote the constant reconfiguration of classifying inductively the endless strings of situation-decision-consequence units.[4] Conceptually, these categories are complementary; they subsume all incoming situations requiring decisions. (Schwab [1964, p. 61] used the terms "complentarities" and "taxonomy".) Categories A through E consist of categories grounded in altruism, commitment to student-centered ideals, and desire to do good as by self-interest" (Sergiovanni, 1992b, p. 310, citing Marshall) and, therefore, are located within the normative framework.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Two non-normative categories, consisting of a political survival category and a techno-rational function category at best marginal to the interests of students (e.g., state education agency obligations) are positioned outside the framework. The framework itself is permeable and therefore is circumscribed by broken lines. An administrator encountering situations unexplainable (e.g., unexpected local board election, a large restructuring grant) by her current array of categories constructs a new category. This addition potentially can cause a reconfiguration of categories both within and outside the framework.

In Figure 2, we provide a prototype of a category. The horizontal broken lines designate the situation-decision-consequence units comprising scripted or automatic decisions: what Sternberg & Horvath (1995) designate as the "bandwidth". Metacognitively, these situations are so familiar to the practitioner that decisions are made without forethought (i.e., "tacit knowledge"). Decisions contemplated <u>outside</u> this bandwidth need considerable thought: essential characteristics of situations are applied to the assumptions and proposition(s) comprising that category.

Figure 1. A Model of Theory in Practice



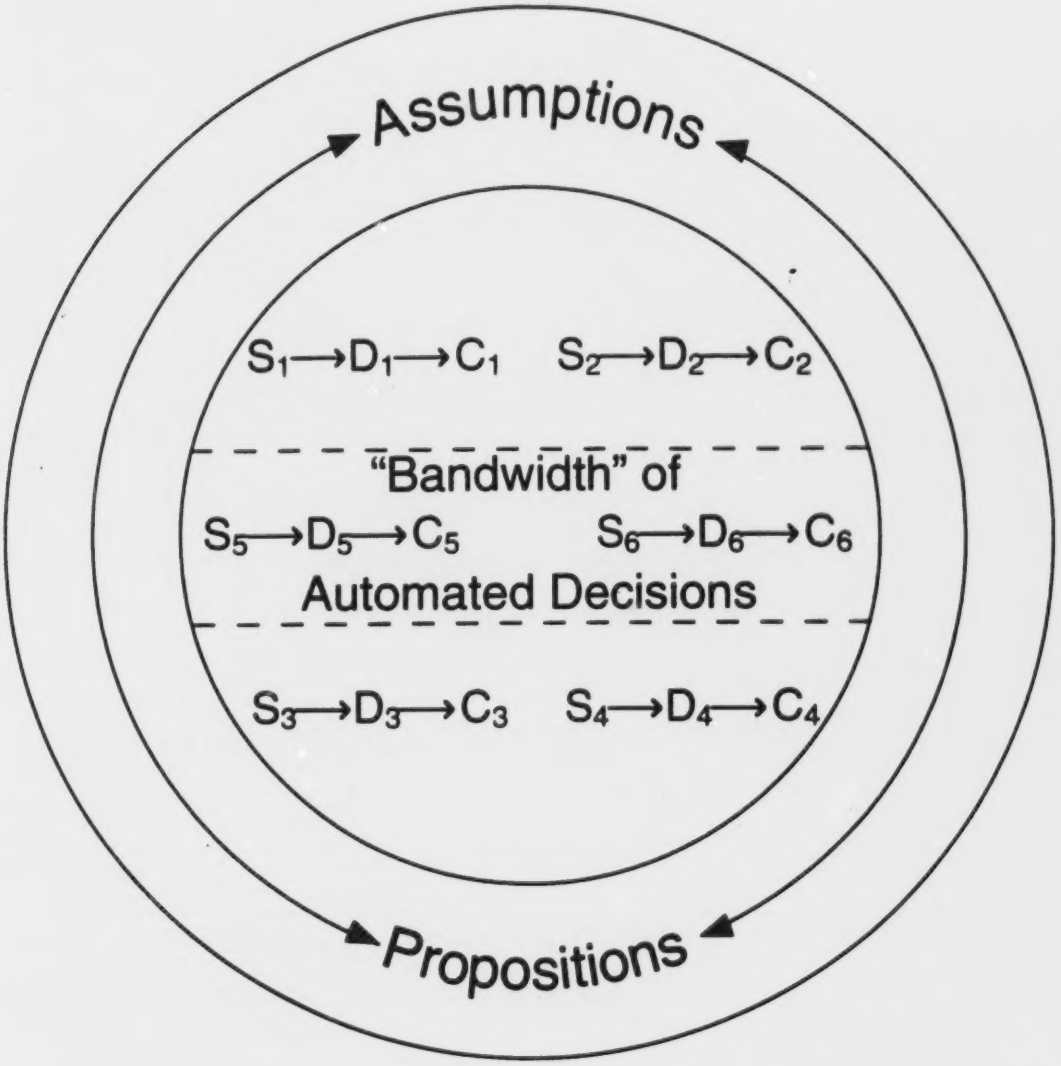
Key:
Normative Categories: A - E
Non-Normative Categories: F - G

Insert Figure 2 about here

Assumptions grounding categories within the normative framework are moral. Sergiovanni (1995), for instance, assails the techo-rational assumptions undergirding business and military organizations being used for schools. Schools, conversely, are grounded in assumptions partly based on a community of learners: (a) if conditions are right, schools have the capacity to improve themselves; (b) when conditions are right, adults and students alike learn; (c) what needs to be improved about schools is their culture, including the nature of interpersonal relationships; and (d) school improvement means providing conditions under which adults and youngsters can promote and sustain learning among themselves (Sergiovanni, 1994, citing Barth, 1989). Such assumptions address basic values and beliefs about administration, schooling, teaching, and learning (Beck & Murphy, 1992; Marshall, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1992; Starratt, 1991.)

Propositions provide the inductively-derived predictive (if-then) logic connecting proposed action with intended consequence. Essential circumstances surrounding these situations function as conditions under which x decision likely will work. (See Wells, Hirshberg, Lipton, & Oakes, 1995, p. 19, for "theory building about school change" that is, the process of developing new

Figure 2. Prototype of a Category in a Theory in Practice



Key:
S = Situation
D = Decision
C = Consequence of decision

propositions and generalizations about why a phenomenon such as tracking unfolds.)

Assumptions and propositions, logically, are interactive; in Figure 2 they are connected by two-direction arrows. Within the normative framework, at least, administrators ground their hypotheses and resulting propositions within normative assumptions. Failure to do this results in what Argyris and Schon call incompatibility between espoused theory and theory-in-use: professionals claiming they are acting in interest of clients; their actions, however, contradict such pronouncements.

Given the importance of practitioner-constructed theories in practice, the authors of this paper collaborated on a two-year study on the identification of theories in practice. How are they constructed. How are they verified? The methodology for this study follows.

Methodology

The two research participants were: Dr. Joseph W. Peel, superintendent a small city/rural district (6,700 students) of Elizabeth City-Pasquotank; and Dr. Carol Watson, superintendent of an affluent, a suburban district of 2000 students in Seattle, Washington (pseudonym). Peel, formerly acting superintendent of a nationally-renowned, metropolitan district, received five offers before discovering his "niche" in 1992; in two years he successfully implemented several teacher and student empowerment district initiatives. Watson was a finalist in a district ranked among the most affluent districts nationally. Both superintendents have doctorates from well-respected institutions.

Data collected through phone interviews in the guided conversation format (Patton, 1980) were recorded and transcribed. Using constant comparison analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the researcher analyzed the data into tentative assertions subject to verification and modification by the two research participants.

This paper consists of an interim study report. The study's long range goal is investigating the extent to which these two superintendents can organize their administrative world into theoretic typologies (i.e., complementary configurations of categories in connecting the normative with practical--what they want with what they achieve). These typologies will be contained in the final study report in 1996.

In the initial, interview rounds during May, August, September, and October 1995, four questions were asked:

1) What kinds of information do these superintendents use in confirming, revising, rejecting their theories? They then provided an example of theorizing wrong about a decision.

2) Do these administrators revise, or even reject, some theories which no longer "work" for them?

3) What types of situations requiring decisions cannot be theorized?

4) Do various theories of action complement each other creating an interlocking web of theories accounting for all situation-decision-consequence units?

Interview Synopses and Syntheses

1) What kinds of information do these superintendents use in confirming, revising, rejecting their theories? Then provide an example of when you used these data to adjust a theory.

Watson

Watson identified three kinds of data;

a) entry data: informal polling, interview, networking in identifying existing norms, outlined in Barry Jentz's "thirty-day" process.

b) direct feedback (e.g., phone calls). "Folks in this district do not have a problem in speaking up. The problem is keeping control in district because parents are so opinionated" (Watson recalling a board member comment).

c) silent voices: "People who are stakeholders and whom I ask questions. For instance, I might ask parents picking up their children at school: 'Tell me about how this happened. What do you think about it?'"

Watson used this example of using data on which to make a decision. "I used the Jentz entry data process to find out what I could and could not change. For instance, I found out that one 'untouchable' was changing graduation ceremony. Some people who didn't want me around (the board had passed over an insider), tried to set me up with taking on that challenge. On the other hand, I found out that technology was something that could be changed." Technology also was something that fit in with Watson's negotiated understanding with the board: that she would bring to the district a different perspective from the traditional, upper

middle class perspective. So Watson believed that judicious implementation of technology into the curriculum could help start a student constructivist approach to learning.

Watson provided an example in which she had theorized wrong (i.e., applied the wrong theory to a situation). "We had to chose an alternative high school for our students." I met with my board and we set up a committee comprised of teachers, parents, committee leaders with prescribed school selection criteria: (a) long range curriculum goals, (b) program for diverse academic needs, (c) student learning, (d) leadership, (e) program articulation, and (f) staff development."

A major theory held by Watson was critical theory--especially the work of Henry Giroux. Unless teachers empowered students to make a real difference in their lives, the poor and disadvantaged had little chance in life. Watson and several committee members were impressed with Johnson HS as an alternative school because of its student-centered structures; students, for instance, sat on real decisionmaking boards. Consequently, this committee, of which Watson was a member, reached an informal consensus on Johnson HS, since students had real voice in what happened in the school and in the classroom. In their report to the board, the committee clearly voiced the attributes of Johnson HS over the other high school under consideration. (This committee's charge was not to recommend a high school but merely to present the attributes based on the selection criteria for both high schools.)

"What I had theorized was that you can put a process into place and base decisions on all these data and input. Then we had

this huge community backlash (300 people at one board meeting displeased with our decision): 'You all do not know what is best for our children.'" The board, which had initially backed Watson and the committee's decision, then overturned the committee decision with a 3-2 vote. The board now called the committee's report "Watson's report".

What Watson learned through this incident was balancing the political with "ideal" criteria based on critical theory. "In hindsight I would have stayed with the original school and worked with the community in changing the school to a more humane school in which all students have an equal chance for success. I theorized wrong in thinking that if you put this process in [school selection committee] in place, base it on all these data, and look at the outcomes, that decisions .... [will automatically be made in the best interests of students]. The truth is that parents in this community wanted their children in a traditional school where students had no input in what goes on in their schools. There really was not much difference in socio-economic status; it was differing philosophies between the two high schools."

Peel

"My theories are linked to outcomes and data from students, parents, and conversations." Peel provided the following example in using data to revise a theory. "I am Theory Y-oriented: Teachers, I assume, like their work and need empowerment and training to make decisions closest to the students. During the past two years we provided staff development on teacher-conducted,

diagnostic student assessment of community-agreed upon skills and knowledge." Yet the 1994-95 Grade 6 writing scores (one of three grade levels reported by North Carolina) dropped.

"During the summer I had planned to disaggregate the data to answer hypotheses like: 1) We've been moving principals around; have they had the time to make necessary changes in writing program?; 2) We also moved some teachers around, including one very strong teacher; did we provide the training for the replacement?; and, 3) Did teachers follow the plan providing appropriate teaching and constant assessment for student writing skills?"

In moving five or six principals around two years ago, based on the assumption that people had different strengths and need change, Peel discovered that incumbent principals had not informed their successors fully about crucial information in their schools. An incoming middle school principal, consequently, lacked important contextual circumstances affecting Grade 6 test scores. Peel learned that "You have to provide both information and training (communication skills for principals; test score analysis, diagnosis, and corrective feedback for teachers). I'll probably conduct staff development with principals next summer [1996] to address this problem."

Peel, however, held fast to his assumptions: We have an organization [public education] that historically creates dependency in people; people are good and capable and want to be successful. "My practice is based on these assumptions and others, as I moved up through the administrative ranks (teacher-principal-

deputy superintendent). I treated people in ways perceived to be fair. I listened to peoples' concerns and viewpoints, and was perceived as concerned and caring."

Synthesis

Data used for verification of theories of practice were (a) entry data, (b) parent/teacher/community feedback. and (c) student outcomes. Both Watson and Peel actively sought data as a way to verify their theories (Watson's "community uproar"; Peel's Grade 6 writing scores). Both adjusted their theories: Watson in adding a theoretic, political counterpart to her critical theory; Peel complementing his Theory Y with continuous staff development.

2) Do these administrators revise, or even reject, some theories which no longer "work" for them?

That is, are there some theories rejected because they no longer work, or are even antithetical to values/ beliefs?

Watson

Watson rejected the social political theory rationale for teacher evaluation (i.e., administrators through authority ascribed to their positions controlling teachers). Watson claimed that such theory typically is shared when superintendents seek out peers about personnel problems. Essentially a critical theorist, Watson, however, theorized: "Language of power and structure needs to be replaced by a language of practice .... " So Watson replaced the district's traditional teacher evaluation, based on observable, technical behaviors, with a process based on teacher reflection and student class participation. "I'm not a believer in

cooperative learning per se, because cooperative learning is just a technique. It doesn't mean participation. Participation is fourth graders debating about why or why not a science experiment is making things happen."

Watson also theorized wrong about the change process. "I had theorized that you could get people individually to start making changes. I learned that you had to keep modeling reflection by playing devil's advocate. I hammer real hard at my principal's belief system [in a mentoring role] so that this principal was sure about something she wanted to do. You have to hire people by probing them on what they believe. If they don't believe in anything they can't participate [in participatory management] because they don't have a clear basis from which to pitch in the first place."

Peel

Not all administrators revise or think about their actions from a renewable and, possibly, changing perspective. "Many people, unfortunately, have one theory of practice and regardless of what happens, they keep doing it over and over again. [And in the 1990s] they're practicing in a world that no longer exists."

Influenced by work of Glasser, Wiggins, Schlechty, and his assistant superintendent for instruction (ASI), Peel recently rejected a techno-rational structure: grading student work--along with its assumptions of pre-specified knowledge defined by grade-level curricula objectives. "What counts is student progress measured by active learning and task assessments identified by the teacher and student definition of 'quality work.' Students

progress at different rates. The [traditional] grading scheme is punitive."

Peel worked with teachers, administrators, and citizens to implement a diagnostic assessment system consonant with his Theory Y assumptions about people. "We're trying to make all students successful people. We must become customer-oriented in personalizing assessment as an instructional strategy." Peel had used a state outcomes-based education grant to provide public forums in which parents, students, community leaders identified outcomes essential for 21st century work. Peel and board members also conducted citizen tours through "restructured workplaces" to promote a district-wide vision for revitalized schooling: Today's students need skills to survive in technology-oriented workplaces.

The researcher then probed Peel about whether this new theory about assessment was actually working with students. "Yes, I think it is working with kids. I talk with the kids in the schools. They enjoy learning being a social activity, that is, learning how to work together and stay focused on tasks." Peel also observed classrooms and talked with teachers about the issues of student motivation and relevancy. He and his ASI conducted workshops on assessments, grading, and also had Phil Schlectly and William Daggett of New York conduct workshops.

Synthesis

Watson rejected the tenets of socio-political theory (e.g., "language and power") as it related to teacher evaluation. Peel rejected psychometric testing and grading as techno-rational structures based on seat-time. Yet what is evident from this

analysis is that Watson and Peel had their own theoretic bases on which to reject these other theories. Watson held fast to critical theory and implemented a teacher evaluation system based on teacher reflection and active student classroom participation. Peel implemented a diagnostic student testing system based on Theory Y assumptions and the nature of 21st century workplaces.

3) What types of situations requiring decisions cannot be theorized?

Watson

"All situations can be theorized. It's theory that defines boundaries. Then operating within or outside those boundaries can be determined." Theories functioned as frames providing clarity and rationale to her decisionmaking. She provided the following example to elucidate the interplay between theory and beliefs.

Watson rejected the market theory of private-sector-within-public sector, because such theory excludes some students. "We have this private foundation that was developed just before my tenure. It's like a second board of education that supports the school. Yet I don't believe that you actually take a public institution and privatize some support within the institution. That support goes to a select few and not where it needs to go."

"I decided I could work with my belief system and make that foundation viable to address our school's needs. So I worked with the foundation president and redirected how it was going to work. Not only did we raise funds going to learning technology, but we also ran a community heritage day celebrating diversity, although

this district does not believe in diversity. Some board members said, 'I don't care if you teach kids about others, but I don't want my kids associated with them [minorities and anyone different].' This event brought everyone's level of understanding of diversity to a very high level through the foundation."

Watson then reacted to the researcher's question about how many superintendents construct their own administrative theories. "I'm now meeting with a tri-state consortium of superintendents [about 30] that want to change practice. We're very selective, and all of us talk theory. Now their theories of practice may be very different than mine philosophically. Yet we're developing a whole new way to evaluate effectiveness of schools and we're trying to replace the middle states evaluation process.

Peel

Peel initially had assumed that some decisions are atheoretic. He first gave an example that appeared atheoretic: a severe case of a teacher hitting a child. Yet Peel soon speculated that many decisions become automated (the result of learning pathways). "Maybe you don't even have to think about something when previous decisions have worked so well. [During his administrative career Peel had fired teachers both with and without tenure] ... Yet, with administrators working in an area in which they have little experience, I think there would be few automated decisions."

Synthesis

Both Watson and Peel view theory and the practice of decisionmaking as interrelated (i.e., inseparable). Watson used

theory to clarify situations (i.e., provide boundaries or parameters for analysis). Peel used theory in the sense of verification (i.e., feedback) gleaned from results of decisions. A decision viewed as working so well in the past hardly needs contemplation.

4) Do various theories of action complement each other creating an interlocking web of theories accounting for all situation-decision-consequence units?

Watson

To understand Watson's theory building, it is necessary to provide a biographic context. After a year's maternity leave from an administrative position, Watson accepted an elementary principal position closer to home. "They had never hired an outsider, they had never hired a woman administrator." Watson had the largest school in this largely rural district. "I needed the intellectual piece--a connection to base my theories on. I needed the readings ... That's why I started the doctoral program [14 years ago] ... I stayed very connected with the university simply because if I didn't have the intellectual piece, I would burn out."

"[During my doctoral program] I had wanted to make a lot of connections with people doing critical pieces in the fine arts field, and I was just told, 'No, it's inappropriate.' [Watson had a fine arts academic background.] I was developing my own theory and I needed to ground it with theorists like Giroux and Bates. Giroux really influenced me--his 'teachers as intellectuals' piece

and 'schooling and the struggle for public life' are probably the two that I most connected with back then ... Here's someone [Giroux] who is talking about the influence that teachers and administrators can have on individuals. It is responsibility of teachers to empower students in making a real difference in their lives."

Watson's doctoral committee kept pushing Terry Deal's writing. Watson, however, wanted to go beyond Deal's work: "It's so structured, nothing in schools are that structured." ... "There are four attributes that make a leader: reflection; you need the participatory piece; the intellectual knowledge piece; and then you need the critical theory piece .... Terry Deal was looking at schools as they currently exist. Giroux had the issue of why and how we need to move schools by taking risks. Giroux pulled it together."

Giroux, recalled Watson, exemplified the artist studio as being a model for teaching, administration, and leadership for discussing issues. Watson continued, "If you talk to some art professors, you get the constructivist approach, and how you rethink what you're doing. Art has changed culture, reflects culture, and can change culture .... Art is there to even get people to rethink about what they know about the culture."

"It's all great to talk about reflection in your work, and obviously as an artist, you do that. I really don't put much emphasis on participatory [management] as many of my colleagues do. I think it's important, but it's only a piece. To me, the key

is when you can get students to think and understand how they can make a difference through reflection and critical knowledge."

So Watson's advocacy of Johnson HS, discussed above, with the school selection committee made sense, since this high school had double periods for writing and reflection on course content, and students could use the library at anytime for research and productive discussion. Watson described an advanced Latin class in which class members helped one student struggling to understand a particular passage: "How often do you see that in a white, upper middle class school?"

So the high school incident caused Watson to complement her critical theory with political theory. [The board's reversal of the committee's decision] ... alienated me from some of the community, and caused real disruption in what I do here in this school district. In hindsight the better decision would have been to stay with the [original] school and work to make change. I would just watch along the process, slow the process up a lot. I would put it on an education piece, but would have been very careful to balance that report more so."

Complementing the critical theory and "political" theory was crucial use of entry data in identifying what could be changed (e.g., implementation of technology) and what could not (e.g., graduation ceremony). Watson commented on her use of entry data: "When entering a new position I am dependent on organization, social science theory (e.g., finding out existing norms). Once I know what these norms are, I can begin applying my personal theory."

Peel

Peel used three school organization levels to theorize about change and improvement: (a) the classroom as level of impact of change, (b) district as focus/ cohesion, and (c) school as unit of change. "People want to know how does all this stuff fits together. Why do we need a central office? How do they work now? Are they useful anymore?"

"Each level is important. The classroom is where we meet our customer. That's where the rubber meets the road. The district has focus and is the unit of direction and support. You have to have something larger than just the school when you have bunches of schools that need to be connected."

"Let me illustrate the organization level differences with an example. We have a community resource department [public relations] within the central office. Marketing ourselves is not something we can just do from the central office. The central office contacts the media, develops video, and works with our educational television channel [across the district]. The school then has to market itself through parent newsletters, good PTA meetings. Teachers also have to market themselves in terms of specifically what they do in classrooms. For instance, parents have opportunities to take the open-ended assessments given their own children, to assess these instruments, and to learn about scoring rubrics for portfolio assessment during school-based workshops. At the teacher level, teacher, student, and parent role- play conferences during which students--ultimately the ones

responsible for their own work,--share what they have accomplished."

Peel then tied this integrative change-level theory both with Theory Y and diagnostic assessment. The change-level theory was held together with a four-piece framework: a) organization and role, b) student learning, c) assessment, and d) student accomplishment. "We constantly are pushing decisions down to the classroom level where students have some curriculum choices; but we start with site-based management in which principals and teachers are being given fiscal, personnel, and curricular autonomy." In student learning students were expected to be both active learners and engaged in quality work--with teachers facilitating these processes. What students had to accomplish we defined through our public forums in which business and community leaders helped define student accomplishments. The assessments, of course, could not be multiple-choice (useful only for static, decontextualized content), but were open-ended and measured critical thinking, skills in cooperative teams, and so forth.

"Ten years ago we would teach the kids and test them to see what they'd learned. When you gave a test in the old days, you were done. If students did not learn the material, tough; you moved on. Now tests are diagnostic and formative rather than summative. You're constantly using the test to see where student learning is so you can make [immediate, instructional] decisions" (Keedy, 1995, in press).

Theory Y functioned as the underlying rationale for the above framework. Unless one believed that people were driven

intrinsically and like their work, such a framework could never be implemented. Peel (Keedy, Peel, Seeley, & Achilles, 1994) had these assumptions about work, people, and schooling:

1) People are basically good and want to be successful;

2) People must envision a changed state: multiple visions of structure, teaching and learning, student accomplishment, and assessment;

3) Change is systemic and must occur at all levels within a district;

4) Decision-making must be inclusive, not exclusive;

5) Schools exist for children and therefore must be data-driven;

6) Accountability measures must have school and adult performance, along with student performance; and,

7) Administrators must have personal and professional confidence in setting the moral tone in schooling.

Peel's assessment theory underlies the crucial assessment piece in this framework. "What is important is not just what you know, but also what can you do with what you know. This change has been driven by economics and the job market. People are working in teams with considerable decisionmaking autonomy. The old factory assembly line production line is just about gone.

When the researcher probed regarding how Peel was convinced that work teams and participatory decisionmaking actually were practiced in workplaces, Peel cited two sources of verification: a) conversations with business and industry leaders, and b)

national and state reports, including a recent report about employee needs in North Carolina.

Synthesis

Both Watson and Peel appear to be developing sets of complementary theories. Watson continues driven by critical theory but has learned through experience to complement this theory with political theory and judicious use of entry data in identifying the most recalcitrant community norms. Peel, as he rose through the ranks, practiced Theory Y, and then complemented this theory both with a three-level organization change theory and student assessment.

Summary and Discussion

Watson and Peel both can be viewed as highly theoretical within the contexts of their practice. Both administrators: (a) used data to verify and to adjust their theories, if necessary; (b) rejected some theories antithetical to their own values/beliefs; (c) connected decisionmaking to their theories in practice; and (d) demonstrated some initial evidence in "webbing" their various theories into complementing systems to account for the entire array of situations-decisions-consequence units.

Their theories of practice also are well-grounded in certain forms of social science theory: Watson in critical theory of Giroux and others; Peel in McGregor's Theory Y, Glasser's student motivation theory. Social science-driven research, which informs but does not prescribe (Sergiovanni, 1991), may help practitioners make sense of their work and provide theoretical assumptions grounding categories for decisionmaking. Such research should be

useful to practitioners in using social science theories as "explanatory frames" in matching up essential particularities defining a situation with experience-based categories providing generalizations across their practice.

Watson and Peel, therefore, were eclectic in their use of social science theory in helping them organize their administrative experience. Their theories of practice are context-specific, and not designed for generalizability to the workplaces of other administrators. Watson and Peel appear consistent in their decisionmaking across their own workplaces. Watson commented: "I am consistent in that I operate from my personal beliefs [theories of practice]. Yet not everyone sees that consistency; people perceive consistency if my decisions and the bases for those decisions are consistent with theirs. Those who do not agree or do not have their own ideas tend to view my actions as inconsistent." This internal consistency between thought and action is a vital characteristic of theories of practice.

Interestingly, both Watson and Peel interviewed prospective local boards as well as being interviewed themselves. When their theories of practice did not match up with board composite beliefs, these two superintendents lost interest in those positions. (Peel was offered five superintendencies before accepting an offer.) Perhaps such "reciprocal" interviewing is possible to the extent that administrators themselves have consistent theories about teaching, administration, and learning.[6] Savvy candidates then match up their theories of practice with composite belief systems of interviewing boards. (For an interview

protocol regarding principals' beliefs on school restructuring, see Keedy & MacPhail-Wilcox, 1995).

As a second characteristic, both Watson and Peel had highly moral bases for their theories of practice. Watson, for instance, insisted on changing the private foundation to embrace student diversity and redesigned teacher evaluation with student classroom participation a key component. Peel rejected summative testing and grading by seat-time as punitive to students.

Given the eclectic use of social science theory, administrative theory building appears highly constructivist (a third characteristic). George Kelly (cited by Krug, 1992) was among the first researchers to contend that people develop unique systems useful in organizing information and anticipating events--processes that influence behavior. Krug (1992) exemplifies this constructivist notion: Differences in belief systems lead principals to construe the same events differently and to take action on them differently.

Theories in practice, in summary, emerge as morally and intellectually-driven. Administrators construct theories about their work based on needs of students. Their theories enable them to connect generalizations about their practice to the particularities of a situation. Other researchers and theorists are emphasizing the moral and intellectual dimensions to leadership in general. (See: Bass & Avolio, 1993, for their "intellectual stimulation" component to transformational leadership; Sergiovanni, 1993, and Starratt, 1991, for moral

leadership; and Pitner, 1987, for both the intellectual and moral dimensions.)

Theories in Practice, the EA Field, and the Cognitive Apprenticeship

Despite practitioner complaints about the "irrelevance of theory," theory is not irrelevant to school administration. Theories of practice, when viewed from the constructivist perspective, appear highly useful in bringing about a congruency between thought and action: a problem that consumed John Dewey, and should consume EA professors--if they want their field to survive (cf. Griffiths, 1988). Practitioners are "knowledgeable" (i.e., exercise good judgment) when operating from personal theories that are: (a) well-grounded in social science theory and personal values/ beliefs, and (b) verified through practice as resulting in intended (i.e., desired) consequences.

Making practitioner-constructed theories in practice a cornerstone of education administration programs may address the theory-to-practice dilemma that has plagued the field since its inception in 1879 (Murphy, 1994). Constructing theories in practice places the responsibility for learning squarely in the laps of the leadership candidates. The professor, as facilitator, asks questions like: In what way does this (social science) theory inform your practice? If seen as irrelevant, why?

The cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1989); Prestine & LeGrand, 1991) seems like an ideal learning tool for leadership construction of these theories in practice. The cognitive apprenticeship concept is based partly on "situational

cognition": learning advances through collaborative social interaction and social construction of knowledge (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1986). More specifically, in the cognitive apprenticeship model (Prestine & LeGrand, citing Collins, Brown, & Newman) students learn: (a) teaching complex tasks by externalizing cognitive and metacognitive processes used by experts internally; (b) framing and situating conceptual, abstract knowledge in workplace sites (practice); and (c) developing both self-correction and monitoring skills in a shared problem-solving context. Prestine and LeGrand claim that incorporation of new knowledge into exiting internalized knowledge structure (schema) makes problem-solving more accessible to learners when novel contexts arise (p. 62).

Prestine and LeGrand provide several teaching strategies and professor classroom roles for the service delivery of the cognitive apprenticeship. Specific to leadership construction of theories in practice, however, the internship may be the best method. For the internship provides an administrative context for development of theories of practice, and "contextualization of cognitive tasks" should occur within the public school culture (Prestine & LeGrand, p. 82, citing Peterson, Clark, & Dickson, 1990). The most detailed case study analyzed in university classrooms can never provide the detailed, authentic situations of "people problems": the gist of school administration.

We therefore coin the term "cognitive internship" in connecting leadership candidate cognitive development to theories in practice. Metaphorically, during the cognitive apprenticeship

the intern "climbs inside the administrator's head," as the administrator is confronted with situations requiring decisions. The administrator thinks out loud with the intern, who, ideally, has observed/heard the problem in its original context. Then the administrator: (a) frames the problem, (b) scans aloud through the theoretic categories (or schema), (c) shares with the intern how she coupled essential particularities of a situation with essentials of a certain category, and (d) describes the decision and desired consequence. The intern, who should takes notes on these "critical incidents," later asks the administrator: (e) what happened in x situation?, (f) how have you the assessed the consequences of the decision?, and (g) has the consequence of the decision reconfirmed an existing theoretic category or caused a reconfiguration of categories?

The cognitive internship, in effect, helps the leadership candidate model the thinking underlying theory in practice construction by experienced, successful administrators. Professors then can provide weekly seminars in which they serve as modelers, coaches, and scaffolders (see Prestine & LeGrand, p. 75) in helping leadership candidates construct their theories of practice by comparing what they might have done--given their own values/beliefs--with what their administrators had done. (Such an internship may work even better with candidates with some administrative experience.)

The logistical problems confronting professors and department chairs in implementing the cognitive apprenticeship-oriented internship, admittedly, are difficult. They include the following:

1) How do we find articulate, highly successful administrators willing to "coach" leadership candidate cognitive apprenticeships?

2) What rewards (e.g., stipends, adjunct professorship) might these administrators receive?

3) What issues of confidentiality (e.g., those regarding personnel) could occur during leadership candidate "shadowing"?

4) At what certification tier is the cognitive apprenticeship most practical: preservice (initial certification) or inservice?

5) How are leadership candidates given the release time to work with these mentor administrators during the work day, when, logically, most decisions are made?

6) How might practica, integrated with coursework, help operationalize the cognitive apprenticeship? Instead of a semester-long, or, as legislatively mandated in North Carolina, an entire-year internship, is the time more efficiently used as distributed among the courses as practica? In this way, research, and social science and organization theory can be related to daily practice incrementally.

Unless leadership candidates receive opportunities both for cognitive modeling of theories in practice and then for relating their own decisions and consequences to personal theory building, EA programs will lack the structural features enabling such intellectual endeavors to happen. Both the potential for theory in practice building and the theoretic underpinning for a functional internship will never be realized. The internship, long a problem in EA, will continue to be "butts, buses, and basals."

Conclusion

In the 1990s, largely due to its intellectual inconsistency, the EA field is splintered among structural functionalism, critical theory, and subjectivism (Willower, 1992). By default, the field may be lurching toward the "skills approach" (see the National Policy Board's Principles for Our Changing Schools [1993] with its 28 knowledge and skill domains). Yet universities are designed for production and transmission of knowledge, not for skills training programs.

The University Council for Educational Administration has produced the seven knowledge domains (UCEA Review, 1994). Yet, according to Nona Prestine, there is little syntheses within and across these knowledge domains, which may function more as electronic course packs than "knowledge" (Scheurich, Prestine, et al. (1995). Or are we in UCEA simply "circling our wagons" for the next assault from legislatures, state education agencies, arts and sciences professors, and practitioners?

A logical question regarding this UCEA knowledge base is, Whose knowledge? Certainly not our leadership candidate who historically encounter difficulty in connecting social science research to practice. The knowledge base domains seem to function more as information packs potentially adaptable for state agency-delivered multiple-choice tests designed to replace the National Teacher Examination administration and supervision subtests. The ideological pendulum continues to swing between theory and practice (Jacobson, 1990), but not in any direction favorable to EA professors.

Theories of practice present a viable middle ground between theory and practice. Future and current administrators learn to organize their experience inductively into complementary configurations of theoretic categories in shuttling adeptly between inductively-derived generalizations about their practice and particulars of a situation (Ohde & Murphy, in press, citing Voss). Constructivist in nature, such complementary configurations are grounded in the practitioners' own values/ beliefs

Integrating theories of practice into EA programs might help inculcate new, highly intellectual, university classroom norms defining professor-leadership candidate relationships: professor as "developer" (Reyes, 1993, citing Culbertson) and leadership candidate as meaning-maker of practice. Such norms are not dissimilar to the teacher-student relationship advocated by the Coalition of Essential Schools members. The Coalition advocates exercising the intellect: persistence, depth over superficial coverage, and classroom debate in which students develop and substantiate positions on crucial on U.S. history themes like justice and democracy. The Coalition mission in essence is intellectual (Sizer, 1984: "Students using their minds well.")

Principals theorizing about their work become the genuine intellectual leaders of the "learning community" concept (Barth, 1987). As principals learn to interact with teachers as active learners, teachers overcome the taboo preventing them from making teaching visible to their colleagues, and students learn to work more cooperatively and less competitively. (Some superintendents now claim that genuine district reform will never occur until

superintendents change their roles to "teacher" [see Sergiovanni, 1993].)

U.S. classrooms have been notoriously boring places (cf. Goodlad, 1984; Sarason, 1990). In this current reform movement, many citizens want our students to be more intellectually aggressive: debating the divergent meanings of historic events, the logic underlying an algebraic formula, an interpretation of Hawthorne in the context of New England Puritanism. But are students willing to take on such intellectual tasks without teachers and principals displaying learning community norms? Given our anti-intellectualism tradition (see Hofstadter, 1962), such a scenario is unlikely (Keedy, Fleming, Wheat, & Gentry, 1995) without first changing institutional norms. Principals, and other administrators, when viewed from the theory-of-practice perspective about their work, however, are <u>continual learners</u> as they match up theory (self-constructed assumptions and propositions) with consequences of their decisions.

The ultimate goal of systemic reform is changing how teachers and students relate in classrooms (Glasser, 1990; Institute for Education and Transformation, 1992; Sarason, 1990). We also want schools where all students preparing for democratic citizenship are respected for their classroom contributions (Seixas, 1993; Starratt, 1991). Progress, however, has been tortuously slow (Muncey & McQuillan, 1993; Keedy & Achilles, 1995). We may never achieve the intellectual and moral goals of this most ambitious systemic reform, unless our administrators reject the structural-functionalist assumption (i.e., knowledge and expertise by

ascribed position) and become learners in their interactions with teachers, parent, and students. Redesigning EA programs around leadership development of theories-of-practice is a propitious turn in the right direction.

Footnotes

[1]The dysfunctional status of the administrative internship was made abundantly clear at a recent UCEA session attended by researchers, EA professors, and superintendents (Keedy, Peel, Seeley, & Achilles, 1994). EA leadership candidates appear to spend most of their internship time "fact-finding" and scouting out the district political terrain. When is the annual headcount form due to the central office? Beneath the fine print of the district organization chart, whom do I really call when I have a personnel problem? How can I get an assistant principalship in an urban district with a hundred candidates "queued up" before me? (For noticeable lack of leadership candidate analysis during the internship, see Willower, 1973). The internship also is inefficient. School district officials could disseminate the techno-rational information (e.g., lunchroom forms, special education procedures) for all interns during inservice, instead of requiring semester or year-long internships.

[2]Argyris and Schon (1974, p. 6) imply a normative orientation in education administration: "From the subjective view, my theory of action is normative for me; that is, it states what I ought to do if I wish to achieve certain results." They also differentiate espoused theories (those to which a professional gives allegiance) from theories-in-use (those actually governing actions). In their text, however, they fail to ground espoused theory in moral or ethical terms.

[3]Successful principals appear far less dependent on their central offices their "typical" principals. Keedy (1992) found

that successful high school principals during extensive interview rarely mentioned the support of central office administrators. Their references to central office administrators were as likely to be negative as positive. Logically, the less principals need to rely on superordinate support and goodwill, the more they can lead schools out of their own frameworks as bases for their decisions.

[4]Category construction may approximate Cronbach's (1978) description of "generalization" used in qualitative research:

> An observer collecting data in one particular situation is in a position to appraise a practice or proposition in that setting, observing effects in context .... As he [sic] goes from situation to situation, his first task is to describe and interpret the effect anew in each location, perhaps taking into account factors unique to that locale or series of events .... Generalization comes late.

[5]Argyris and Schon appear inconsistent in their use of the term "assumptions." On p. 7 they use assumptions as essential circumstances under which a decision or strategy might work (e.g., the counselor can speak the students' language). Yet later in the text, they refer to assumptions as variables regarding power, control, personal causation, democratic participation. Given the moral context of U.S. schooling, we are adopting this second use of assumptions in our theory building model.

[6]Ernest Boyer (1983) noted that very few high school principals know why they are hired. Selection decisions, far from rational--Here is what I believe and have done based on these beliefs and why they have worked--instead are made from "warm and

fuzzy" feelings about community standing, coaching experience, and popularity. One reason for this phenomenon might be candidate lack of personal, theoretic bases for their management and leadership.

[7]Pitner's chapter in Leaders for America's Schools is considered by this volume's editors, Griffiths, Stout, and Forsyth, as the most complete and scholarly critique of preparation programs.

[8]Watson appeared to conduct a cognitive apprenticeship when she shared with her new ASI how and why she makes certain decisions. Watson apparently wanted to make sure that her local board and various publics perceive the ASI and herself as being consistent.

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